Kambera language

Kambera, also known as East Sumbanese, is a Malayo-Polynesian language spoken in the Lesser Sunda Islands, Indonesia. Kambera is a member of Bima-Sumba subgrouping within Central Malayo-Polynesian inside Malayo-Polynesian. [3] The island of Sumba, located in the Eastern Indonesia, has an area of 12,297 km². [4] The name Kambera comes from a traditional region which is close to a town in Waingapu. Because of export trades which concentrated in Waingapu in the 19th century, the language of the Kambera region has become the bridging language in eastern Sumba.

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Kar	nbera		
East Sumbanese			
Native to	Indonesia		
Region	Lesser Sunda Islands		
Native speakers	240,000 (2009) ^[1]		
Language family	Austronesian		
Taminy	Malayo- Polynesian		
	Central– Eastern		
	Sumba– Flores ?		
	■ Sumba– Hawu		
	Sumba		
	East Sumbanese		
	Kambera		
Langua	age codes		
ISO 639-3	xbr		
Glottolog	kamb1299 (http://g lottolog.org/resou rce/languoid/id/ka mb1299) ^[2]		

Phonology

Vowels

	Front	Back
High	iiː	uuː
Mid	e ai	o au
Low	a, aː	

The diphthongs /ai/ and /au/ function phonologically as the long counterparts to /e/ and /o/, respectively.

Consonants

	Bilabial	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stop	р	t		k	
Implosive	б	ď			
Voiced affricate			dʒ		
Nasal	m	n		ŋ	
Prenasalized stop	™b	nd		ŋg	
Prenasalized affricate			л d 3		
Fricative					h
Lateral		I			
Rhotic		r			
Semivowel	w		j		
Prenasalized semivowel			лj		

Kambera formerly had /s/, but a <u>sound change</u> occurring around the turn of the 20th century replaced all occurrences of former /s/ with /h/.

Morpho-syntax

Negation

Negators are used in Kambera, and other languages, to make a clause or sentence negative in meaning. Kambera has several types of negators. There are six main types of negators listed below.

Negators	English translation
nda	negation
ndia	emphatic negation
ndedi	'not yet'
àmbu	'won't, don't' (irrealis negation)
àmbundoku	'won't/don'tat all'
ndandoku	'notat all'

Ndia 'no' is used for general negation, and *nda* 'negative' or *ndedi* 'not yet' are predicate negators. *Ndoku* is used to emphasise the negation by being placed with the negator $\grave{a}mbu$ or nda. [5] Example:

(1)^[6] Ambu bobar ndoku -ma -ya!

NEG.irr preach NEG.emp -EMP -3sA

"Do not talk about it at all!"

Àmbu is used to express future negation, as well as negation in imperatives. [5]

 $(1)^{[5]}$ Àmbu katuda=kau nàhu!

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NEG.IRR sleep=2s.ACC now "Don't go to sleep now!"
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Negators are elements in a clause that are deictic. They can be used to refer to time, space and discourse. [7] Shown below, the negator, *ndia* is used to refer to discourse.

```
(1)<sup>[8]</sup> Ndia ná!

NEG DEI

"No!" (not like that)
```

Two of these negators nda and ambu - with nda being a general negator, are used for nominal and verbal predicates.

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(1)<sup>[9]</sup> Nda ningu ndoku

NEG be NEG.emp

"There are none at all."
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Negators into verbs

The word pa in Kambera is derivational and can be added to few prepositional nouns, numerals and negators to create verbs. The emphatic negator ndia 'no' can become a verb through pa derivation. The translation of this verb then becomes "to deny". [10]

Example below of how *ndia* is constructed into a verb in a given phrase:

```
(1)<sup>[11]</sup> na- pa.ndia -ya ba nda na- njala
3sN- pa.no -3sA CNJ NEG 3sN be/do wrong
"He denied that he did wrong."
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Noun phrases

A nuclear clause has the <u>predicate</u> as the head in Kambera, and <u>modifiers</u> are positioned at the beginning of the clause. As *nda* is a modifier it is placed at the beginning of a clause, as a clause-initial negator, before the verb and the rest of the elements of a nuclear clause.^[12]

You can distinguish nominal clauses from NPs is through the irrealis negator $\grave{a}mbu$ and the negator nda, which both never occur inside a possessed NP.^[13]

Clitics

The Kambera word *nda* is also considered to be a pro-clitic as well, as they do not conform to the minimal word requirement and must occur with a syntactic/phonological host.^[14] A clitic is a type of bound morpheme which is syntactically free, but are phonologically bound morphemes. They can attach themselves to a stem, for example the negator *nda*. *Nda* appears before its host and is used to mark negation. It has a very simple phonotactic properties and cannot carry stress. ^[15]*Nda* as a clitic can only ever occur with a host.

Example:

```
(1)<sup>[16]</sup> Ka 'nggiki hi nda =u- 'ita -ka?
CNJ why CNJ NEG 2pN- see -1sA
"Why didn't you see me?"
```

In the example above, the negator nda becomes nda u- [ndaw], with nda attaching itself to the <u>allomorph</u> u-. [17] Nda is a proclitic that marks an embedded clause in Kambera.

Relative clauses

Negators are also included in relative clauses, but are not a part of the noun phrase.

Example:

$$(1)^{[18]}$$
 [Nda [ndui pa- bohu]_{NP}] -ya

NEG money RmO- steal -3sA

"It (is) not stolen money."

Pronouns and person markers

Personal pronouns are used in Kambera for emphasis/disambiguation and the syntactic relation between full pronouns and clitics is similar to that between NPs and clitics. NPs and pronouns have morphological case.

Personal Pronouns

Person	Number		
	Singular	Plural	
1INC		nyuta	
1EXCL	nyungga	nyuma	
2	nyumu	nyimi	
3	nyuna	nyuda	

Kambera, as a <u>head-marking language</u>, has rich morpho-syntactic marking on its predicators. The pronominal, aspectual and/or mood clitics together with the predicate constitute the nuclear <u>clause</u>. Definite verbal arguments are crossreferenced on the predicate for person, number and case (<u>Nominative</u> (N), Gentive (G), Dative (D), Accusative (A)). The four main pronominal clitic paradigms are given below.

	Nominative	Genitive	Accusative	Dative
1SG	ku-	-nggu	-ka	-ngga
2SG	(m)u-	-mu	-kau	-nggau
3SG	na-	-na	-ya	-nya
1PL.INC	ta-	-nda	ta-	-nda
1PL.EXC	ma-	-ma	-kama	-nggama
2PL	(m)i-	-mi	-ka(m)i	-ngga(m)i
3PL	da-	-da	-ha	-nja

Examples:

- (1) apu-nggu granny-1SG.GEN "My granny."
- (2) ana-na child-3SG.GEN "His child."
- (3) Kau pa.ta.lunggur-ya na wihi-na scratch CAU.be sore ART leg-3SG.GEN

 "He scratched his leg sore." (lit. "He scratched and caused his leg to be sore")
- (4) Na-tari-bia nahu angu-na
 3SG.NOM-watch-MOD now companion-3SG.GEN
 "He just watches his companion."
- (5) Ningu uma-ngguabe.here house-3SG.GEN"I have a house." (lit. "Here is a house of mine.")
- (6) Nyuda-ha-ka nahu da ana-nda they-3PL.ACC-PRF now ART child-1PL.GEN "They are our children now."

The items in the table below mark person and number of the subject when the clause has continuative aspect.

Doroon	Number		
Person	Singular	Plural	
1INC		-ndanya	
1EXCL	-nggunya	-manya	
2	-munya	-minya	
3	-nanya	-danya	

Examples:

- (1) Lunggur-nanya na Ihi-na scratch-3SG.CONT ART body-3SG.GEN "He is scratching his body."
- (2) "Laku-nnguya ina", wa-na go-1SG.CONT mother say-3SG "'I am going, mother," he said."'

Possession

Kambera has a possessive or reflexive noun wiki 'self/own', which can be used to mark possession (1).

(1) *Uma wiki -nggu* house self/own -1sG 'My own house'

Wiki has the structural properties of a noun and can be used as a nominal modifier (compare 2 & 3), unlike pronouns which must be cross-referenced on the noun with a genitive clitic (3).^[19]

- (2) Uma witu -nggu house grass -1sG 'My hut'
- (3) Uma -nggu nyungga house -1sG I 'My house'

As (3) is a possessed noun phrase, the enclitic attaches to the noun. In possessed and modified noun phrases, the genitive enclitic attaches to the noun modifier (4).^[20]

(4) Na uma 'bakul -nggu ART house be big -1sG 'My big house'

In Kambera, where cross-referencing is used, the noun phrase is optional. A verb along with its pronominal markers constitutes a complete sentence. Pronominal clitics are a morphological way of expressing relationships between syntactic constituents such as a noun and its possessor. [21]

Possessor relativisation

Possessors can be relativised with a *ma*- relative clause. ^[22] There are three types of clauses used in the relativisation of possessors.

The first is when the embedded verb is derived from a relational noun such as mother or child. These derived transitive verbs express relations between the subject and the object (5).

(5) Na anakeda [na ma- ina -nya]
ART child [ART RmS- mother -3sD]
'the child whose mother she is'/'the child she is the mother of'

The second clause type is where the possessor is the head of the ma- relative clause and the possessee is the subject of the embedded verb (6).

(6) Ita -nggu -nya [na tau na ma-meti kuru uma -na]
See -1sG -3sD [ART person ART RmS-die wife -3sG]
'I saw [the man whose wife died]

The final type is where the relative clause contains the verb *ningu* 'be' and the incorporated argument of this verb. The head of the relative construction is the possessor (7).

(7) Na ihi tau na maningu woka .ng ART ART RmSperson be content garden 'the person that has crops' (lit.: 'the person whose garden content is')

*N.B: the morpheme .ng marks the edge of incorporation

Normally, the possessor pronoun *nyuna* 'he/she' follows the possessed noun (8), though it can also be the head of a relativised clause (9).

- (8) Na marihak [na kalembi -na nyuna]
 ART be dirty [ART shirt -3sG he]
 'His shirt is dirty'
- (9) Nyuna na [ma- marihak na kalembi -na He ART RmS- be dirty ART shirt -3sG 'He whose shirt is dirty'

Possessors can also be relativised in the same way as subjects. For example, in the following headless relative clause (no possessor NP is present), a definite article is present (10).

(10) Na ma- rabih karaha kalai -na
ART RmS- trickle side left -3sG
'The (one) whose left side trickles (i.e. lets water through)'

(mythological character that is the source of rain)

Abbreviations

Gloss	Meaning	
NEG.irr	irrealis negator	
NEG.emp	emphatic negator	
EMP	emphasis marker	
2s	2nd person singular	
ACC	accusative	
DEI	deictic element (space/time)	
3sN	3rd person singular nominative	
3sA	3rd person accusative singular emphatic pronoun	
CNJ	conjunction	
2pN	2nd person singular pronoun	
1sA	1st person accusative singular emphatic pronoun	
RmO	object relative clause marker	

Footnotes

- 1. Kambera (https://www.ethnologue.com/18/language/xbr/) at *Ethnologue* (18th ed., 2015)
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- 3. Klamer 1998
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- 7. Klamer 1998, p. 142
- 8. Klamer 1998, p. 142
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- 12. Klamer 1998, p. 77
- 13. Klamer 1998, p. 99
- 14. Klamer 1998, p. 27
- 15. Klamer 1998, p. 47
- 16. Klamer 1998, p. 50
- 17. Klamer 1998, p. 50
- 18. Klamer 1998, p. 336
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- 21. Klamer 1998, p. 60-61
- 22. Klamer 1998, p. 320-321

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